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ABSTRACT

With an emphasis on the role of local school administrators, this study focused on a change model for occupational education programs involving: (1) motivation, (2) structure and authority, (3) goal development, (4) resources, (5) mobilization, and (6) outcomes. The study, based on interviews with 23 public school superintendents, revealed that there is ample motivation to change and expand occupational education programs. Also, it was found that local support for occupational education programs is widespread, thus contributing to the climate necessary for change. However, obstacles to change were noted, such as the ability to obtain and effectively utilize sufficient resources for program implementation. Cost, in particular, was identified as the primary obstacle to change. In discussing strategies for overcoming obstacles, the study recognizes two major limitations regarding program innovation--the limited power of a superintendent and the boundaries of the superintendent's ambitions for the system. (JS)

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CHANGE IN OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

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1970

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CHANGE IN OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS: A STUDY OF LOCAL ADMINISTRATIVE AND COMMUNITY FACTORS AFFECTING PROGRAM CHANGE IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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* *

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PREFACE

In a time when educational change is needed to make more kinds of education available to more people, it seems appropriate to examine the process of educational change to determine the reasons it does or does not take place. This study makes such an examination and suggests ways to facilitate needed change in local school systems.

The Center and the author wish to thank the following persons who were of assistance throughout the production of this report: Dr. A. G. Bullard, Director of the Division of Vocational Education, North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, 1969; Dr. W. W. Peek, Director of Statistical Services, North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction; Dr. William J. Block, Head of the Department of Politics, North Carolina State University at Raleigh; Dr. Harry G. Beard, Center for Occupational Education; Mrs. Jean Todd; and the 23 local unit administrators who generously took time, frequently from hectic schedules, to participate in the interviews.

The Center expresses appreciation to Dr. Bennett for conducting this study and compiling the results. The Center also gratefully acknowledges the work of Mrs. Sue King in editing the manuscript and thanks the entire Center staff for their efforts toward the publication of this report.

John K. Coster
Director

SUMMARY

This study focuses on the factors which either promote or constrain change in occupational education programs, based on interviews with a sample of 23 public school superintendents and assistant superintendents.

There appears to be ample motivation to change and expand occupational education programs to meet new educational needs. Not one respondent was opposed to occupational education, and most indicated at least a general acceptance of the programs by their local school boards, county commissioners, academic teaching staff, and the community at large. This acceptance, and often enthusiasm, also indicates a permissive organizational framework within which change could take place. The problem lies primarily in the ability to obtain and effectively utilize sufficient resources--including finances, facilities, and manpower--to implement change. Cost, in particular, seems to be the greatest drawback to change, so ways to reduce costs must be found. Several solutions are discussed here, along with their implications for the improvement of occupational education.

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THE PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVES

The American economy increasingly demands vocational competence on the part of persons entering the labor market. This problem is clear for those persons who do not complete college, but it is even more important for those who do not complete high school. Occupations requiring technical training are increasing in number and size, and persons who have had occupational training in school find better jobs and are hired more readily than those without such training (U. S. House of Representatives, 1968). This situation creates a two-sided problem: unskilled persons have trouble finding productive and lucrative work while there is a scarcity of trained labor to fill available jobs requiring skills (HEW, 1963; Kemp, 1963; Barlow, 1965; Whitlock and Williams, 1963). Evidence indicates that occupational education programs in secondary schools can help develop relevant skills and motivate students, but American schools are not consistently meeting these challenges. Some schools reportedly have no occupational education programs at all, and the programs in some other schools are so limited in coverage as to fail to prepare students for modern jobs (U.S. House, 1968).

In an effort to develop occupational education programs, Congress has passed major vocational education legislation designed to provide support for a much more intensive program.[1] The states have responded by developing a wide range of programs supplementing and complementing those developed by Congress. However, without local action, the public school portions of these programs have little or no effect. It is necessary for individual school units to match federal and state resources and to make certain policy decisions in order to implement Congressional programs.

Two general assumptions underlie the present study: (1) The adoption of appropriate occupational education programs in local school units is necessary for students to have the opportunity to obtain a valid career preparation. In schools now offering little or no occupational training, students not only miss the possibility of timely occupational training; but they also tend to be channeled into restrictive career patterns. Because of the lack of decisions for program change in certain school units, students are, in effect, deprived of important career possibilities. (2) Present needs in occupational education include adopting courses relevant to modern business and industry, adopting a broad and balanced mix of programs, and making the programs available generally to students. These objectives also require a deliberate process of change throughout the schools.

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[1] Particularly important to public schools in America was the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968.

Both of these assumptions emphasize the need for change. Program change in public schools represents a type of organizational innovation. Innovation here does not necessarily require the invention of new programs, but it does require their adoption or the significant extension of old programs (Mohr, 1969). Even in this sense, however, innovation encounters obstacles both within the organization and from its supporting environment (Press and Arian, 1966).

The main objectives of this study are to develop and present a model of the change process and to use the model to identify and better understand the conditions which either support or obstruct change. When this is done, an attempt will be made to suggest strategies for implementing change in school units. The study focuses on the local school level, since it appears that decisions made by local boards and superintendents are instrumental in the effective development of programs. State departments of public instruction have developed many alternative curricular possibilities, but each local unit must put together its own program--either from these alternatives or on its own initiative. The local administrative school unit, headed by a superintendent, can be viewed as a system which responds to demands and supports from an environment. This implies that conditions either supporting or obstructing change in the educational system can exist inside or outside that system. It is logical, then, to examine the nature, location, and importance of factors affecting the change process.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

The essential problem that this study presents is "How is change accomplished in the occupational education programs of our public school systems?" We have further narrowed the problem by posing the question within the local context" "What are the effects of the community-level system and its participants?" The main concern is with the process of program change, and we will attempt to generalize about factors which might constrain or facilitate change by comparing a series of such programs.

To analyze change within this context requires the use of two theoretical areas. One is the theory of organizational change and innovation, and the other is the area of community power and influence. There is ample theoretical literature and supporting empirical evidence in both these areas.

Innovation in Organizations

In many ways, innovation (which includes changes in organizational goals, techniques, and procedures) cuts across the intrinsic trends of organizations (Blau and Scott, 1962; Simon, et al., 1950). Organizations are composed of sets of skills and procedures which are programmed to produce particular outcomes. Organizations which produce their desired outcomes efficiently tend to have routines so standardized as to require little review or evaluation; goals which are known and accepted; norms and attitudes within the organization which support the goals or are, at least, not detrimental to them; skills which are developed and coordinated in customary relationships which contribute to the goals; and a relationship with an environment which is more or less known and mutually supportive.

Although changes in the surrounding environment may make change in the organization desirable or even imperative (Simon, et al., 1950), any change, however necessary, is potentially disruptive and threatening. Basically, people must be resocialized to accept new organizational goals. New sets of skills must often be acquired through recruitment or retraining. Organizations must often make new investments in facilities, work out new routines and procedures, and abandon old and tested patterns. It is rarely certain, also, that a satisfactory relationship can be maintained with the environment with the occurence of all these other changes.[2]

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[2] These characteristics are for all organizations, public and private, but they may be more complex in the public organizations, especially in relating to the environment. Private organizations operate in a marketplace where their outcomes can be relatively quickly evaluated and where the survival of the organization is immediately at stake. Public organizations, on the other hand, such as school systems, serve a clientele which separates the immediate effects or outputs (education) from support (money and authority). The effectiveness or utility of the output is not immediately known to the clientele, for the student and taxpayer may both perceive a short-range positive utility, while the utility for the social system tends to be subjective and poorly articulated. Social utility is hard to define though, and public organizations can survive without meeting long-range, optimal, or even sufficient levels of effectiveness--a deterrent to change.

These organizational characteristics help explain why the status quo maintains itself. There are, however, several factors that do motivate organizations to change. (1) A major fact is that the environment is seldom completely stable. As the aspirations and values of the supportive environment change, it becomes necessary for the organization to change if it is to continue to receive support. (The school system is again a complex example here, because it operates in relation to several environments: monetary support, grants of authority, and individual tenure granted by different social structures which partially overlap.) (2) There is also a tendency for the aspirations of organizational leaders to change over a period of time (one reason for bringing new leadership into an organization being to rapidly raise the aspiration level of the leadership). Either of these changes (environment or leadership) produces unsatisfactory outcomes if the organization settles for the status quo, so a motivation for change is provided. March and Simon (1959) cite two other types of motivation for change. (3) One is accidental encounters with opportunity. A fortuitous opportunity to receive a unique or status-conferring resource (money, skills, facilities, etc.) may not only make change easier; it may stimulate the process. (4) Change also seems to be motivated by optimum stress. Without some stress, there is little incentive for change; with too much stress, change may require too many resources or be too threatening to an unstable equilibrium. (5) Finally, innovation/change in public organizations has been found to be highly correlated with the size of the community. However, Mohn (1969) has attributed this predictive ability to the tendency of larger communities to have highly motivated individuals and groups, greater resources, and a greater ability to avoid obstacles. On the whole, then, change is motivated by unsatisfactory outcomes and the hope for receiving better outcomes.

With these general considerations as a basis, we can begin to outline the conditions and activities which we expect to either support or impede the progress of change. Change is a process that goes through the following stages: search for alternatives, selection among alternatives (making no change is always one alternative), setting of goals, programming, and implementation. The search for and, thereby, the possibility of recognizing alternatives is simplified when there is ample time available and detailed search procedures are provided. The possibility of rational change is increased if the leadership of the organization is not totally immersed in operating details. Goals must be clear before they can be made operational, and we would infer that there must be some adequate degree of unanimity on the goals before they can be effectively implemented. Generally, new organizations are most effective in change, as they are not committed to old goals and they are not bound by obsolete skills and routines. Finally, time pressure can facilitate change. A sense of urgency can speed the search process, aid in making a decision among alternatives, and push the programming and implementation stages of change. It is to be expected, however, that too much time pressure can frustrate change by making the entire process appear fu-

tile or by pushing procedures which may not effectively implement goals.

Just as the conditions described above tend to facilitate change, the opposites of these conditions tend to impede change. In viewing these factors as constraints against change, the concept of costs must be considered. Change always incures some costs. There may be direct and tangible costs, such as the investment lost in the abandonment of a plant or equipment, or indirect and intangible costs, such as damage to morale or the costs involved in disrupting old working relationships (Mohr, 1969).

If these investment ("sunk") costs are likely to outweigh the benefits of change, that change and even the search for alternatives is likely to be impeded.

Beyond the costs of change, choosing among alternatives involves opportunity costs, or "intergame" costs (Adrian and Press, 1968). When a program is designed and pursued in order to achieve one set of new outcomes, it is usually necessary that alternative programs, with their own outcomes, be bypassed. In other words, the more useful program for obtaining desired outcomes will be accepted. This process does not deter change per se (unless the usefulness of current outcomes is high), but it may deter a particular change, such as committing resources to occupational education programs instead of to other programs.

Simon, Smithburg, and Thompson (1950) suggested still other factors which may impede change. If the proposed change threatens personal self-interest, if it violates the mores or beliefs of those affected, if it appears to be or is nonrational, or if it appears to be or is insubordination, it is likely to be resisted.

Community Influence Structures

The views that decisions concerning change are affected by environmental factors and that the decision-making system includes portions of the school system environment lead to the inclusion here of a discussion of community influence systems. Fundamentally, school systems depend on other systems, such as county governing bodies, for funds necessary to many programs. Even beyond this consideration, electoral decisions direct the freedom within which each school system may operate. School board members are usually elected, and most communities face bond and tax referenda from time to time which are designed to help the schools. Of similar importance is the fact that schools and their leaders are parts of a web of community relations which may pervade the decision-making process. Groups and individuals in the community potentially control a system of rewards and penalties which are important to the school leadership. The rewards may range from status and friendship to influence over commissioners and voters or even to money. Of course, the school exists as a service to the community and its inhabi-

tants, so the involvement of community interests is not only legitimate but also, presumably, desirable.

Effective pressure on the school board and the superintendent by community interests is likely to vary greatly from community to community (Kimbrough, 1964; Cahill and Hencley, 1964). At one extreme, all power is centered in the hands of a few influentials who are responsible for all significant decisions in the community. The school board and superintendent only implement decisions made by this group. Since the classic Hunter (1953) study in Atlanta, however, only limited evidence has been found of this type of power distribution.

Critics of Hunter and his predecessors argue that their conclusions may have been determined by methodology and that power is not typically distributed in this fashion. Robert Dahl (1958, 1961), for example, feels that power is pluralistic and divided among a variety of groups and individuals on the basis of self-interest, available time, civic values, and other factors. How power is distributed and utilized in any given community is an open question, but there are some more or less general assumptions that can be made. (1) Effective power does not necessarily reside in the official, authoritative, decision-making structures of the community. (2) Power may be distributed in a number of groups and individuals in the community. (3) Persons and groups who have an interest (either vested or ideological) in decisions may or may not have power; but in a system with some slack in the exercise of power by potentially powerful interests, there is a possibility for power in other groups which fully utilize their own power resources. (4) Official decision-makers may be blocked if they do not have the active support or concurrence of those persons and/or groups who hold power and are willing to use it. If the official decision-makers are the ones who do hold the power, however, this is not a problem. (5) If the distribution of power is centralized, official leaders must follow, bargain with, or persuade influentials to support their programs. (6) If the distribution of power is decentralized, decision-makers must mediate among interests to achieve goals. This may lead to a form of coalition politics and a bargaining situation.

Two corollaries to these assumptions may be relevant to occupational education. (1) Decisions which are of marginal interest to the community may be effectively supported by groups with little power if the decisions do not demand many resources and do not threaten things of value for more dominant interests. (2) If resources can be acquired outside the community, interests of nondominant groups are more easily advanced. These corollaries are significant to the extent that occupational education is of secondary interest to much of the local political system and to the extent that there are outside sources of support.

ELEMENTS OF A MODEL OF PROGRAM CHANGE

The factors considered in the preceding sections can be viewed as either facilitating or impeding organizational program change in a public context such as a school system. A facilitating element supports, initiates, or stimulates change; an impeding element constrains, obstructs, or prevents change. In attempting to use these concepts to analyze public school systems, we can group the factors into a number of categories: motivation, structure and authority, goal development, resources, and mobilization. Motivating elements stimulate or initiate change, while the other elements have to do with the channeling and processing of change. The product of change is its outcome. With sufficient refinement in measurement (and to the degree that the model is complete), the model could be used to develop a statistical explanation of change. However, in the present investigation the model will serve primarily as a conceptual framework for a descriptive explanation.

The Change Model

A. Motivation
   1. Motivational factors which facilitate change
      a. acceptance of the legitimacy of and the need for occupational education by relevant actors[3]
      b. dissatisfaction with the present program by any relevant actor
      c. optimum stress (Some sense of urgency should motivate action, especially if focused on the area of occupational education.)
   2. Motivational factors which impede change
      a. indifference or opposition to occupational education by relevant actors
      b. satisfaction with existing programs
      c. lack of urgency about occupational education or high stress in an area that competes for the attention of relevant actors

B. Structure and Authority
   1. Factors which facilitate change
      a. authority to experiment or depart from existing procedures, curricula, or standards
      b. authority to reprogram existing personnel and resources for new programs

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[3] The term "relevant actor" is used here to indicate any person or group who might influence programs offered by the school system, including the superintendent, school board, community groups or individuals, and possibly others.

c. authority to acquire personnel and other resources for new programs
d. intra-organizational norms which accept or encourage experimentation
e. organizational size which is sufficient to assign some resources to new programs

2. Factors which impede change
a. rules prohibiting departure from existing procedures, curricula, or standards
b. rules prohibiting or restricting the reassignment of personnel or other resources to new programs
c. rules restricting the acquisition of new personnel or resources which might be assigned to new programs
d. intra-organizational norms which resist change
e. organizational size (small size particularly) which impedes change by making it difficult to free resources for experimentation or to develop a variety of programs

C. Goal Development
1. Factors which facilitate change
a. the institutionalization of search procedures, including staff and time for planning
b. development of concrete goals with clearly ordered priorities
2. Factors which impede change
a. the lack of special staff for planning or the lack of time for existing staff members for planning
b. vagueness of goals or competing goals reducing the priority in the area of occupational education

D. Resources
1. Factors which facilitate change
a. low cost of desired innovation
b. availability of new funds including those from either local or outside sources
c. availability of other resources, particularly trained staff, physical facilities, and equipment
2. Factors which impede change
a. high cost of desired innovation
b. difficulty in obtaining new funds
c. difficulty in obtaining other resources, including staff, facilities, and equipment

E. Mobilization
1. Factors which facilitate change
a. leadership roles: relevant actors, especially the superintendent, who advocate and initiate change programs in occupational education
b. community processes: community groups and individuals who are latent or actual sources of support and who are, or can be, organized to provide support
c. communication to inform relevant actors and to seek support; the development of formal use of media and mass communication;

facility with informal, face-to-face communications

2. Factors which impede change
   a. absence of leadership roles; no actors who assume the role of advocating and initiating change, particularly a superintendent who fails to maintain this role vis-a-vis other relevant actors
   b. community groups and individuals who express opposition to program change or organize to oppose change; failure of potential groups approving change to organize or express support
   c. little or ineffective use of communications to develop interest or to solicit support

F. Outcomes - Program change and, therefore, the state of program development at any given time are seen as the outcomes of the foregoing inputs and processes. Change can be indicated along several points.
   1. Additions and deletions of individual courses and course areas
   2. More or less variety
   3. More intensive training for individual students
   4. Changes designed to reach more students
   5. Changes designed to meet the needs of particular classes of students, such as the retarded, girls, boys, non-college-bound, or college-bound
   6. Provisions for labor needs of the community, the region, or a wider area
   7. Provision for more relevance
   8. Commitment to more, or fewer, resources

METHOD

The model above demands an instrument to generate measurements suitable for analysis, to test the general assumptions of the model, and to maintain enough flexibility that other ideas could be brought in by respondents. Hence, no attempt was made to conduct a rigorous statistical study at this stage of the investigation. A series of 23 local public school administrative units were selected to represent a cross-section of North Carolina and to be analyzed as case studies. North Carolina was selected as a convenience, although the model should be equally effective in other areas. The sample was limited to one state to avoid extraneous factors such as differences in administrative organization or level of state support. The sample was stratified in terms of type of administrative unit (total county, partial county, or city) and size of the unit. Table 1 compares selected sample characteristics with state-wide figures.

Table 1. Comparison of sample administrative units in North Carolina with state-wide figures on selected characteristics.*

Characteristic	Mean Sample Level	State-Wide Level
Percent vocational education expenditures from local sources	34.8	35.2
Vocational education expenditures as a percentage of total expenditures	4.2	4.2
Percent non-white in community	24.7	25.4
Percent rural in community	18.8	17.7
Percent rural, non-farm in community	44.3	42.7
Percent urban in community	36.8	39.5
Median education in community (years)	8.9	8.9
Median income in community (dollars)	3,755	3,956

* Current Expenditures by Source, 1967-68, Statistical Services, North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 1968; Summary of Expenditures for Vocational Programs--Fiscal Year 1967-68, Division of Vocational Education, North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 1968; Part 35 of U. S. Census of Population, 1960, North Carolina. Vol. I: Characteristics of Population, U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1963.

A largely open-ended questionnaire (Appendix) was devised and based primarily on the categories in the model, and the respondents were encouraged to elaborate on or add to the questions if they wished. This rather casual approach was productive in getting new ideas, but in some cases it created chaos in the questionnaire and data analysis design. Interview data were supplemented by census and statistical data from the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction.

For each administrative unit, the superintendent, or his assistant if necessary, was chosen as the interviewee. A letter was sent to each selected subject explaining the purpose of the study and telling him he would be contacted for an interview. The actual appointments were made by telephone. The investigator conducted and completed the interviews during the summer of 1969. All of the superintendents or assistants from the 23 units selected for study completed interviews. The substitution of an assistant superintendent was made for a variety of reasons. One assistant stepped in for a superintendent who was new to that system. In another unit, the superintendent was called to a meeting with the county commission at the last minute. In one case, the investigator had not been able to contact the superintendent to set up an appointment, and upon "dropping in" at his office, found the superintendent out and carried on the interview with the assistant. Additional interviews with two of the respondents were cut short as the result of a day-long meeting with the school board and a local crisis, respectively. Without exception, however, the respondents were cooperative, and the interviews which normally lasted an hour were sometimes extended to two or three hours. The interviews were tape recorded except when noise or other conditions were prohibitive or, in one case, when the superintendent preferred that it not be recorded. Unfortunately, the quality of most of the tapes was quite poor, and the transcriptions had to be supplemented by the investigator's notes and memory.

SUMMARY OF CASE STUDIES

The information from the case studies, while not suitable for statistical analysis, can be viewed from a general perspective. In summarizing, an attempt will be made to reflect the range of responses, and some tabulations of results will be given. As the entire sample consists of only 23 cases, to report tabulations as percentages would be misleading. Therefore, any tabulations represent a direct count. Another caution is in order. The interviews were fairly open-ended and unstructured, so some superintendents raised points which were not systematically examined. These points may often merit inclusion, but there can be no assumption that they are descriptive of the sample.

In order to give some assessment of the significance of the information in this summary, it will be organized within the categories of the model presented earlier in this report.

Motivation

The factors which were considered motivational included superintendents' attitudes about the role of occupational education in the school system, their desires for improvement, their sense of the urgency concerning occupational education or a competing urgency which might detract from their interest in occupational education, and their perceptions of the aspirations of the school board and other community actors.

None of the respondents expressed opposition to the idea of occupational education in secondary public schools. Most superintendents felt that occupational education had been slighted and that it is very important to bring it into a better balance. They frequently observed that a majority of their students would not go to college and that these students should be given a better start through vocational training. At least 15 of the respondents pointed this out in response to an open-ended question relating to the value of occupational education for thier students. Three of then also observed that an expansion of the vocational program would help with the problem of dropouts, and several pointed out that it would be a useful orientation to post-high school technical schools. There were, however, two respondents who emphasized the role of occupational education as being secondary to that of general or academic education.

Although most superintendents talked in terms of training for more or less specific skills, some felt that the attitudes developed in vocational courses are the most important aspect. One even emphasized that the main purpose of a variety of courses was to attract students; then once the proper attitudes were developed, particular skills could be transferred or developed. In contrast to this, two respondents expressed concern that they did not have enough knowledge of future labor market needs to be able to determine exactly what courses to offer.

All respondents felt that occupational education courses might have some value for college-bound students as well as for the noncollege-bound. (Some volunteered this; for others it was a response to a probe.) The values for college-bound students included skill development relevant for college (i.e., typing and drafting), development of well-rounded attitudes, and the development of skills which might provide employment while in college.

Desire for improvement can be gauged by reference to courses or programs which the superintendents would like to add or change. Most respondents had some ideas for new courses or programs, often reflecting an assumption that their current curriculum was inadequately developed. In terms of urgency, the greatest feeling seemed to be expressed by those with the least developed programs. Also, the most enthusiasm was expressed by those whose programs seemed, subjectively, better. However, the investigator felt that undue stress in other areas might detract from progress in occupational education. Our data can provide no solid basis for judgment on this point, but most units were going through or had recently gone through a process of desegregation which was frequently time-consuming and controversial. In no case did this appear to have greatly impeded planning, changes within the program with existing resources, or the application for new programs or allocations. (The desegregation problem has undoubtedly reduced community support for money, etc., but the "crises" per se did not seem to divert efforts for occupational education change.)

All respondents felt that their school boards were at least not hostile to the idea of occupational education, and, for the most part, they indicated that the attitude was very favorable. There was no indication of a philosophical opposition to occupational education, although one superintendent felt that his board had little interest in it.

Although school boards generally favor occupational education, there is little evidence that they take the initiative in developing it. Only two or three superintendents indicated that the board or a member of the board had a particular interest in any type of course, and none would accept the idea that the board had strongly pressured for a particular course or program (although most of the superintendents would not claim to have pressured the board either). The school boards appeared to be open to suggestions from not only the superintendents but also from the teaching staffs, principals, and the people in the community.

Most superintendents felt that their county boards of commissioners were highly favorable to occupational education programs. This question had not been included originally in the questionnaire, but it was volunteered several times and was finally asked of the last 15 or so respondents. The commissioners are important to school systems in North Carolina because they must authorize all appropriations from local revenue sources. (The school board does not have a direct taxing authority.) Two superintendents volunteered that the occupational education program is a particular selling point with the commissions, and all but three who were questioned on this point felt that it was popular with the commissioners.

Three superintendents thought that the commissions were more or less indifferent to their occupational education programs. All three of these were in city units, and apparently the indifference was typical of the county commissioners' attitude toward the entire city school program. This pattern of opinion did not, however, extend to all separate city units studied.

In terms of general community attitudes toward occupational education, there was a nearly universal indication of community acceptance, some very scattered indications of explicit community support for a particular program, some scattered indications of indifference, and only one or two indications of opposition to a specific program. Two superintendents indicated community attitudes which might be construed as being philosophically opposed to occupational education, and the following additional examples were cited: (a) industry-based opposition to cosmetology alone; (b) indication of past nonsupport from the textile industry; (c) general apathy; or (d) willingness to pay the costs of occupational education facilities, staff, and equipment. Generally, superintendents felt that their programs were popular in their communities and one basis for general support for their schools.

It was expected that there might be internal resistance to occupational education development or change from the general teaching staff, but most superintendents felt that the programs were well accepted by the teaching staff members. The respondents agreed that the academic teaching staff generally reported the vocational staff to be innovative and flexible, and that the academic teachers welcomed occupational education, with some qualifications. Several superintendents felt that there is a tendency to direct only the duller students into occupational education or to direct brighter students away from it. The respondents said that two or three academic staff members felt a resentment for the relatively high occupational education salaries. Many indicated that in former years the vocational agriculture teachers had been resented for presumably having light loads, poor qualifications, and high salaries. Only one superintendent indicated that these feelings might still persist in his own unit. One respondent indicated that principals and guidance counselors had not been involved enough in occupational education programs in the past.

The superintendents' attitudes toward occupational education were almost universally favorable. The instrument did not adequately differentiate between degrees of favorableness, but the interviewer had some subjective impressions of this. There were almost no philosophically based or pragmatic objections to occupational education, although two superintendents indicated resistance to cosmetology programs from local practitioners alone.

Structure and Authority

It was expected that structured role relationships within the school system might be a deterrent to change, but there was very little

evidence of this in the interviews. As noted above, most superintendents or assistants felt that any institutional stigma toward occupational education had already been reduced. Most also felt that the teachers themselves had been adaptable to new ideas and methods. (One superintendent did express reservations on this point.) Finally, the pattern of community support was seen as, at worst, indifferent to change.

As far as the size of the unit is concerned, there was undoubtedly a great impact. Although larger units do not spend a larger proportion of their resources on vocational education,[5] they have greater flexibility in terms of scope and specialization. In other words, a school with a thousand students can fairly easily work in a program which is appropriate for one-tenth of its students, whereas a school of one hundred students probably could not do this. It follows from this that administrative units which, although large, are divided into several high schools are similarly disadvantaged. Almost one-half of the respondents mentioned this type of problem. To offset the disadvantage of small size, a few units are beginning to experiment with transporting carefully selected students to another facility, using centralized occupational education facilities, or even sharing centralized facilities among administrative units. One or two superintendents also indicated that the disadvantage of small size was offset in part by the increased rapport among the students, teachers, and community.

Local units have a wider latitude in terms of courses and programs they can offer. However, until recently, they were bound by the state system of allocation of specific positions which did not permit a change without the study and approval of the State Division of Vocational Education. Although nearly everyone praised the state division for its cooperation, five respondents felt that this had been a constraint on their ability to change their programs. One respondent indicated that it had been necessary to overcome the opposition of the state division in order to use a centralized vocational facility, and in response to probing, four mentioned "red tape" in state programs as being constraining. By and large, however, superintendents did not reveal any deep dissatisfaction with state regulations or activities.

Even in the case of federal guidelines for federal programs, there was little adverse reaction. There was some mention of red tape, but there was more general praise of the federal role in terms of its support of occupational education.

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[5] The coefficient of correlation between unit size and percentage of expenditures for vocational education for all units in the state is -.02.

Goal Development

It was expected that institutionalized procedures for program development would be reflected in program change. This would be indicated by the existence of a staff and time for planning and the development of well-defined goals. Any indication of the significance of the planning staff is confounded by unit size because the state gives support for assistant superintendents to supervise vocational education to larger units, and size itself may explain much program variation. Although about one-third of the units had an assistant or associate superintendent with the responsibility for vocational education, there was little evidence that their time was being used in an innovative way rather than on primarily administrative matters. One rather subjective impression was that superintendents who are most interested in occupational education like to do much of the planning for it themselves.

Another factor which reduces the significance of local planning is the support given by the State Division of Vocational Education. They will assist in ascertaining local labor needs, employment opportunity, and local capacity to conduct a course. Planning in this case may consist of determining which of the state's resources one will request. There are limits to state support, but this seems to be of little constraint at the planning stage.

Although time and staff for planning do not seem to be too significant at this point, goal development is still important. One superintendent had made surveys and developed a ten-year plan early in the development of new federal programs. The plan was clearly and specifically laid out on a timetable and incorporated a number of new ideas. The superintendent felt that he received completely adequate support from the state in the allocation of positions and approval of ideas. On the other hand, superintendents who did not have their program goals so well developed seemed to have greater difficulty in obtaining the level of support they desired or needed.

Resources

Money, people, and facilities are obviously needed to conduct any program and may be even more critical to program changes, as change often requires greater investments in facilities, equipment, and human skills. These three are closely related, as money is needed to acquire both staff and facilities, but at any given time a superintendent may view them more or less independently.

North Carolina is not a wealthy state, and many of its counties are in relatively poor financial shape. One-half of the superintendents specifically mentioned the poverty of their counties as a factor which affects the quality of their occupational education programs. Almost one-half of the superintendents commented on the higher costs of occupational education programs as compared with academic programs. Nearly all of them felt that the state support they received was helpful or even indispensible, and two felt that it should be increased consider-

ably for the less affluent counties. Although some local units provide supplements to the state matching requirement, there is not a very wide range in the level of local support (see Figure 1).

The input of a significant amount of outside money can make a difference, as is the case for the one atypical unit shown in the figure.[6] The superintendents of some less affluent counties felt that additional support from either the state or another outside agency would be absolutely essential for any significant development of their programs.

Programs are affected by the availability of teaching staff and the qualifications of those already on the payroll. About one-half of the superintendents indicated that staffing does create a problem, but only four of these mentioned salary level as the main reason. Others mentioned salary as a problem but said it had not affected their programs. In addition to salary, superintendents mentioned the remoteness or rural character of the area as unattractive to potential teachers, the shortage of qualified teachers, and the poor training of the available teachers. Presumably, these problems could be mitigated by higher salary levels, but drawing occupational education salaries further out of line from other salaries would increase morale problems for the general teaching staff.

In contrast to complaints about the availability and quality of teaching staff, the superintendents who were the most enthusiastic about their programs gave much of the credit to the teachers. Teachers were given credit by some for changes in all types of programing, for suggesting new programs, for making cooperative programs a success, and for doing an excellent job of developing student competence and motivation. At least one respondent indicated that he couldn't replace one such teacher for any salary.

Physical facilities are also a resource. Many occupational education programs require considerable space and often expensive equipment. About one-third of the superintendents volunteered this as a particular problem in response to the question, "Can you think of any other factors which might have affected the nature or quality of your occupational education program?" Although this problem might be reduced to a financial one, the solutions are not entirely limited to that. Some superintendents thought that their communities would vote for money for this type of change if they were not preoccupied with fears concerning desegregation. On the other hand, consolidation and adjustments in attendance areas had freed space for some superintendents to expand their programs. One superintendent complained that the state standards for buildings to be used for shops were too high and, as a result, demanded unnecessary expense. He felt he could obtain safe and adequate buildings for this purpose by using prefabricated metal units.

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[6] Local funds in this particular case included a large federal grant made directly to the unit, which was not reportedly separately by the state.

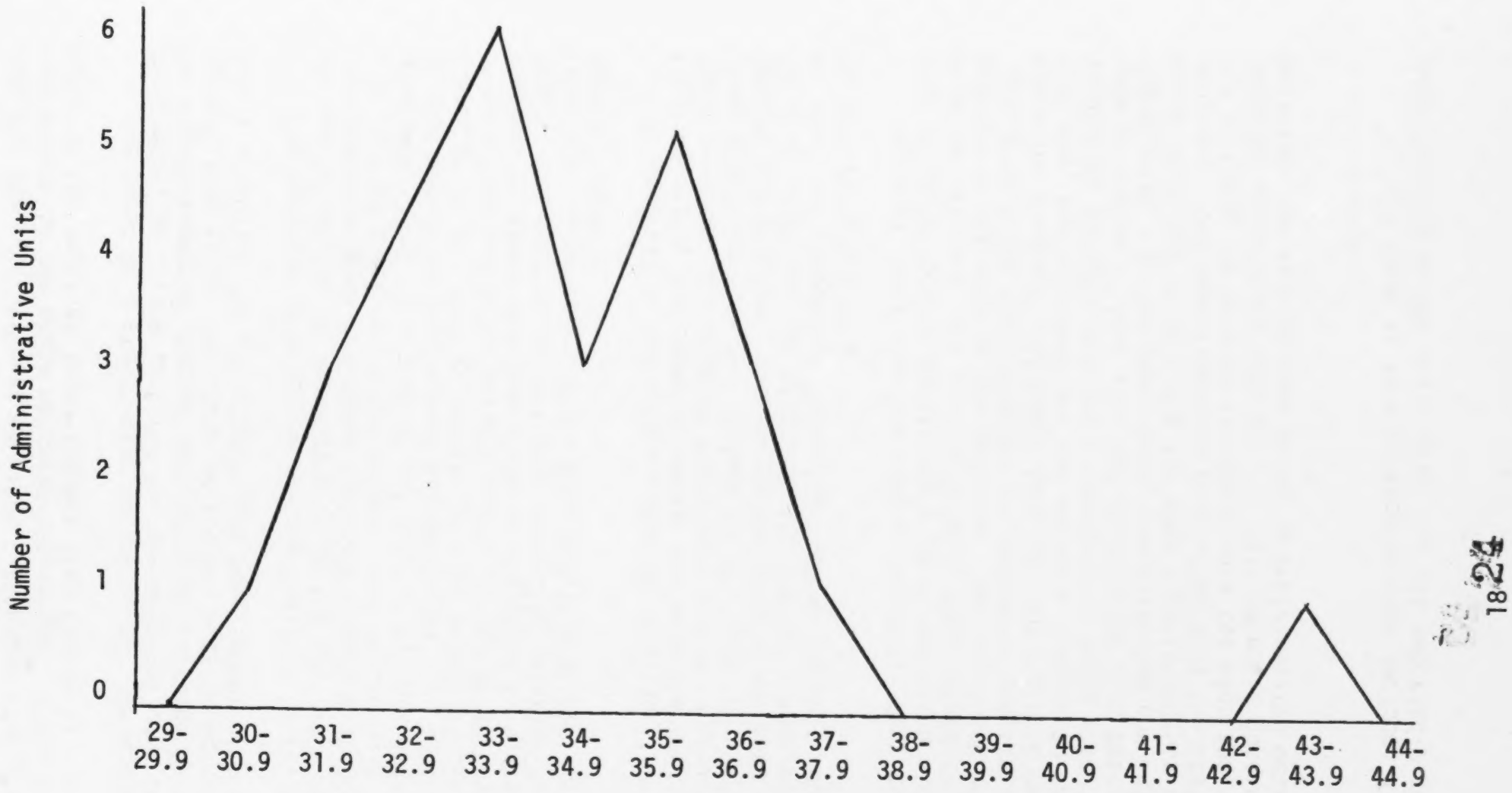

Figure 1. Distribution of the Percentage of Vocational Education Expenditures from Local Funds*

* Source: North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, Division of Vocational Education, Summary of Expenditures for Vocational Programs--Fiscal Year 1967-68, Raleigh, North Carolina, 1968.

The obtaining of equipment may be somewhat fortuitous. Some units have received special federal grants for this purpose. In several units local businesses or industries contributed materials ranging from bricks to machine tools and electronics kits. Although many superintendents saw equipment costs as a problem, there do seem to be potential local resources beyond taxes and bonds, at least in areas with appropriate industries. One or two superintendents felt some reservation about accepting such contributions from low-wage industries, but one of them said that even this type of industry would advance some of his students beyond the point they were likely to achieve without such training. It appeared that all superintendents accepted this type of aid only if they were convinced that it served the needs of their students rather than the mere convenience of a local industry.

Another factor that might be considered a resource is the employment opportunity in the community. This was not systematically explored, but some units were located in areas with vigorous industries providing incentive to their students. Superintendents in areas with few or low-paying industries seemed to have more reservation about student interest. Also, in two or three very rural units, cooperative program efforts had been thwarted by a lack of appropriate business or industry for placing students.

Mobilization

Mobilization was described in the model as consisting of leadership roles, community processes having a potential impact on occupational education, and communications. These categories are not neatly or uniformly defined, but they are intended to bring into focus the processes which might bring various resources and motivations together.

Leadership Roles. The superintendents emerged clearly as the local initiators of programs on the basis of the interviews. In some units teachers or principals made suggestions for new programs or program modifications, and in a few instances suggestions came from business or industry; but the State Division of Vocational Education was clearly the principle contributor of ideas and information. While some of the superintendents acknowledged that they received ideas from other sources, no one denied that it was largely up to them or their immediate staff to put a program together and get it approved. This view emerged in spite of the fact that most of the respondents gave full credit to the policy-making authority of the school board and seemed to be reluctant to portray themselves as overstepping the bounds of their authority.

The role of leadership in program change is a qualified one. No proposal, so far as could be ascertained, was presented to the board or anyone else "out of the blue." It appears that, typically, a consensus is maintained which would follow a pattern similar to the following: (a) recognition that the existing program has some inadequacies; (b) attempt to define the inadequacies; (c) search for alternatives or consideration of an alternative which appeals to the superintendent or

someone else; (d) evaluation of costs and benefits of preferred alternatives; and (e) if a decision is made, application for funds and positions. At each point of this process, the State Division of Vocational Education and other agencies may be influential through: (a) information on educational problems; (b) information on programs; (c) help with surveys of students and communities; (d) information on program alternatives; and (e) approval or disapproval of applications.

The superintendent, then, moves in a context where he may ignore cues or seek them, filter and feed information or not; but he tends to move concurrently with his board of education. The process does not put the board in a position to say "no" to a proposal. In only one instance did a superintendent report that the school board had not approved a proposal, and this was in response to an atypically intense community pressure.

Likewise, the superintendent and the board move in a realization of what degree of support they can expect to receive from the county commissioners. In no case was it reported that the commissioners vetoed funds for a specific proposal, but a great many plans were never proposed which the superintendent and board felt would not have a chance of support from the commission. Somewhat more frequently, proposals requesting an allocation for a position from the State Division were turned down, but this was seen as a calculated risk for requests which only marginally met state criteria for support.

In general, then, the leadership role is not one of aggressive program development in isolation, but rather an attempt to structure a consensus concerning problems, alternatives, capacities, and solutions.

Community Processes. The interviews did not reveal much structuring of community interests related to occupational education. Most superintendents reported interest--sometimes considerable interest--but virtually no organized effort to influence the occupational education programs of the schools. Even agricultural groups did not emerge as a structured factor. The community pattern of influence appeard to consist of scattered requests for a particular type of course, scattered offers of equipment, rather general interest in what was happening, scattered reports of apathy, and one case of deliberate opposition to a proposal of a specific course. In brief, the superintendent seems to have the freedom to try to create his own patterns of support if he can overcome apathy or opposition to the expenditure of funds. He rarely has to contend with community groups which attempt to affect the substantive aspects of his programs. (This generalization represents the area of occupational education only--during the period of interviewing or leading up to it.)

Communication. A number of superintendents maintain public support through information programs. Most use the local media to publicize points of interest, and a few had highlighted their occupational education programs in their efforts. One or two units were not served by a local medium (radio or newspaper), so this channel is not universally available.

This obstacle may be offset by the small size and informality of such units, though. All respondents indicated that they discuss their school programs in meetings where they appear (hardly a surprising finding), and a few use such meetings specifically to discuss their occupational education programs.

The data do not reveal much about communication with the school board or other officials. In most units, however, such communication appears to be frequent and informal. In other words, there does not seem to be any obstacle to program development or change based on communications problems; it is more difficult to say whether communication processes have facilitated change.

Outcomes

A meaningful summary of programs is difficult to achieve. There are several items which can be examined, but great caution should be exercised about drawing substantive conclusions from them. This study was not designed as one of program evaluation, and, if anything, it demonstrates the difficulty of evaluation. It also reveals the difficulty in developing an effective measure of change. For example, comments made by some superintendents concerning new courses lead one to suspect that what is being done is neither very new nor very relevant. In other cases, superintendents detailed changes which had been made in a "traditional" agriculture course to make it new and relevant.

There is also a procedural problem in assessment. Some superintendents had a detailed knowledge of what was being done in their units; others were very vague and resorted to any information in reports in the filing cabinet. Any effective evaluation of change would require supplementary interviews with supervisors and teachers and, perhaps, observation of classes.

Decisions for Change. Change is usually not a specific decision process. All respondents reported course additions and program changes over the past five years. These were often in cooperative programs and the Introduction to Vocations programs, but not exclusively.

Resources Commitment. The change process is tied so closely to the state system of allocation and support that there is almost no variation in local financial support of programs (Figure 1). The unusually high local contribution shown by one unit actually reflects a substantial federal grant to that unit. Except for this case, local commitments range from 31 to under 38 percent of the total budget.

Those Affected. Superintendents did not have a breakdown of enrollment by sex, but two general observations can be made. First, most programs are implicitly oriented to boys. Second, there is some concern about broadening the programs for girls. This concern was seen mostly where a number of schools had or wanted courses in power sewing, fashion design, commercial cooking, etc. Several had also added or wanted

courses in health occupations primarily for girls.

Information on the number of students served is not too useful for evaluating the impact of the programs. The data show a range of 22 to slightly over 100 percent of the students. The city units are all at the lower end of the range, while those at the top of the range are in rural areas. The unit with over 100 percent served is composed of schools with a 1-12 grade range, and evidently students are counted in vocational programs even if they are not in high school. The next higher unit had just under 70 percent enrolled in vocational programs. The scattered use of junior high schools adds to the difficulty of comparing these data. Additionally, large but nonvocationally-oriented home economics programs raise the percentage of some units considerably.

Several trends are discernible from the comments made by the superintendents. First, there is the feeling that the stigma among "bright" students toward occupational education is being reduced, and these students are likely to take a vocational course if they can work it into their programs. There is growing interest among all students in the cooperative programs, especially in areas where there are interesting or challenging jobs. Some students who would be thought traditionally to benefit from occupational education are, however, avoiding it. This does not necessarily mean a decline in interest, since many such students are from areas where few if any occupational education courses were offered before mergers. Several units have developed special programs for students who are retarded or who represent severe educational problems. Many of these would probably not have remained in school in the past. Finally, several superintendents commented that since merging formerly Negro schools with white schools, they realize that there is a great need for occupational programs in these schools. The impression is strong that this need was unrecognized and unmet before the merger. No superintendent suggested or even hinted that occupational education is a "Negro program," but clearly the process of bringing Negro students into view has heightened interest in occupational education for some systems.

Program. Course titles gave no hint whether the course is current and up to date or traditional and irrelevant. Many old courses remain, and in some cases the respondents felt that there was a declining need for others (especially, for example, in agriculture). All respondents did, however, indicate that courses had been revised or abandoned as certain needs changed. A few indicated a time lag in the process, but no one suggested a completely static program.

Variety of Programs. Variety tended to be related to unit size, but, again, titles are misleading. Some agriculture courses are varied greatly by the teachers, and some cooperative programs provide for almost limitless flexibility.

Scope of Orientation. All superintendents indicated that they respond to the needs of local labor markets in developing programs. No superintendent indicated that his program should be limited to the local area, and many already had courses which clearly went beyond this limit.

In some cases the superintendents specifically indicated that there were no local employment opportunities and that they endeavored to orient programs to regional or national labor markets.

TOWARD A STRATEGY FOR CHANGE

Mohr (1969) has suggested the following formulation:

> Innovation is directly related to the motivation to innovate, inversely related to the strength of obstacles to innovation, and directly related to the availability of resources for overcoming such obstacles.

The three elements of the above statement closely parallel our investigation. Most superintendents are motivated to develop their offerings in occupational education. The state and professions have been generally successful in this development. A remaining problem is to motivate the school board and the community into action. This seems to be consistent with the values of many community groups and individuals.

The upgrading of occupational education strikes a responsive chord in terms of many local interests. It reflects virtues which are valued but often feared lost: work, skills, integrity, production, and achievement. Right or wrong, it is seen as a solution to problems such as dropouts, employment preparation for the disadvantaged, providing manpower in labor-scarce occupations, and providing a basis for attracting industry to a community. It is often seen in terms of helping the individual fulfill his own individual capacities. In contrast to public frustration with most issues of the day, occupational education can be seen as practical, beneficial, and close to home; furthermore, it has not been tagged either liberal or conservative.

Although the superintendent must respond to his own community with the particular symbols to which it can relate, it does seem that he has a good deal to work with on this basis. Indeed, many superintendents report that their occupational education program is a major point of community interest. The obstacles and the resources to overcome them cannot really be treated separately. Nearly all the obstacles cited have to do in one way or another with the inadequacy of resources, and these can usually be reduced to financial resources. However, to the degree that a community develops enthusiasm in its support for a program, it will be willing to bear a greater financial load. In other words, cost as an obstacle is in some way relative to the degree of community support. for this reason, the remainder of the discussion will center on the need to reduce the relative costs of change. The relative costs represent the balance between obstacles (psychological and tangible) and availability of resources.

Undoubtedly, the easiest way for a local unit to reduce the relative costs of program change is to obtain outside support (especially if it does not incur excessive new costs, such as red tape). A major method of implementing state and local vocational education policy has been to subsidize local programs and, to a limited degree, to create special studies in some areas of particular need. Although these subsidies are limited, local units have considerable potential to utilize those which

are available. For those local units with the most meager real capacities, these subsidies should be increased (relative to the local contribution) before state and federal policies can have a full impact. Such transfer payments to local units are not, of course, less costly to society as a whole, but they have a number of advantages. This system provides a way to: (1) shift the costs to the more productive tax base of state and federal governments as compared to the typical local government tax base; (2) spread the burden across relatively more advantaged areas; (3) take advantage of the information gathering and planning capacities of federal and state governments; and (4) implement state and national priorities.

Another approach which shifts some costs to institutions outside the school system is the utilization of cooperative programs. Aside from the educational value of these programs, which may be considerable, the school can avoid some expenditure in salaries, buildings, and equipment. In addition, the school can often achieve considerable variety and flexibility in its offerings. Some program costs can also be reduced if an industry contributes equipment or material to the school. If such contributions are a legitimate part of the school program, they can be helpful; but they are not likely to be the basis for a comprehensive program. Some units lack a sufficient industrial or business base to utilize these approaches, but this aspect of the problem may merely argue for the consolidation of adjacent units.

An increase in the scale of operations may reduce costs by making it possible to get more out of expenditures and to increase flexibility. The traditional way to do this has been to consolidate schools and administrative units. There is undoubtedly further potential for this as a method, but it is not the only way. Students can be transported between facilities to reduce the need for duplicating staff and facilities and to get more use out of existing facilities. Centralized facilities can also be developed for one or more administrative units. These approaches may conflict with other educational or administrative values (e.g.,safety, not spending time in transportation, or not scattering students throughout the community) and may not always be desirable. However, students are being transported for a variety of other reasons, the equipment for transportation is usually available, and the concept of moving students for at least some purpose is probably generally acceptable. Class scheduling has become more complex with blocks of time set aside for certain purposes, so administrative convenience would not seem to be a major consideration.

It is sometimes feasible to send a small number of students to a technical institute for types of training not provided by the secondary schools. This increases flexibility or variety without the need for paying for a full-time staff member, facilities, or equipment. This practice has been discouraged in the past and perhaps should be reserved for fairly specialized situations, but technical institutes are widespread and more often available to units which lack other resources. In addition to sending students to take a course offered by a technical institute, arrangements might be made to use some of its staff, equipment, or space for school programs on a cost-sharing basis. Any of these

approaches will reduce the investment by the secondary school and may increase the efficiency of operation of the technical institute.

Some superintendents felt that their programs had been significantly improved by the ability and enthusiasm of particular staff members. This suggests that there is a potential for improvement if the teaching staff is given the freedom and encouragement to develop their own interests and those of their students, to gain information and ideas by attending conferences, and to experiment.

Summary

This discussion has assumed that there is a good deal of motivation for change already active, or at least latent, in the community. If this is so, the remaining problem is to reduce the relative costs of change to an acceptable level. Occupational education tends to be expensive, but there are ways that costs can be reduced, transferred, or made more acceptable. The impact of these innovations is most important for the less affluent administrative units that have relatively few alternatives within the scope of their own internal resources. Costs can be transferred to a different level of government with a broader and more productive tax base; cooperative programs can transfer costs to institutions which might benefit from or have an altruistic interest in such training; efficiency or effectiveness can be increased through a better use of existing resources; and the fullest development of the human potential of the teaching staff can yield true improvement.

While this study has pointed up some reluctance on the part of school system superintendents to promote change, it must be recognized that not a large amount of power to make sweeping changes rests in the hands of these superintendents. While they may not utilize all the authority they possess, they do not possess all authority. Program innovation is, therefore, limited twice--once by the power a superintendent may exercise and once by the boundaries of the superintendent's ambitions for the system. Both of these capacities must be increased in order to implement school system improvements.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire for Superintendents' Interviews

Administrative Unit _____

Date _____

CHANGE IN OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS: A STUDY OF LOCAL ADMINISTRATIVE AND COMMUNITY FACTORS AFFECTING PROGRAM CHANGE

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1969

I am conducting a study concerning the development of occupational education programs in our public schools. I am especially interested in the role of school superintendents in the process of program development and their views of problems involved. The following questions are designed to obtain ideas and information on a systematic and comparable basis. Answers will be treated statistically, and you will not be identified.

Please answer as directly and freely as possible, but do not hesitate to ask for clarification or to qualify your answers if you wish. If a question is not applicable, or if you prefer not to answer one, please indicate this and we will move on.

Occupational education refers to educational programs designed to assist persons in selecting, preparing for, entering into, and adjusting to a career consistent with the attributes of the individual and the occupational demands of society at elementary school, junior high school, senior high school, and post-secondary school including adult levels.

Before getting into the main interview, I would like to ask a few background questions:

1. How long have you been superintendent in this unit?

2. What professional positions have you held before moving into this position?

3. How many years of school have you completed? What degree(s) do you have?

4. What is your age?

1. I would like to ask you about the occupational education program in this school system and to ask about your ideas concerning occupational education. To start off--what do you feel is the value of occupational education courses as a part of your students' programs?

    a. Which students benefit most from occupational education courses?

    b. Are there students who would not benefit from occupational education courses?

2. How do you evaluate the importance of occupational education in comparison to academic or general education?

3. Do you have an assistant who is charged primarily with the supervision, or development, of your occupational education program?

4. About what proportion of your teaching staff is in occupational education?

5. Have you had difficulty in recruiting staff to fill occupational education positions?

   a. If yes, for what reason(s)?

   b. If yes, has this affected your program? (Please explain.)

6. What occupational education courses are offered in your school system? (Probe for elementary and junior high courses.)

7. About what proportion of your total program does this amount to?

   a. Course hours

   b. Student hours

   c. Students

8. Finally, I would like to obtain more detailed information on the scope of your program.

   a. Student enrollment in each area

   b. Breakdown of student units in occupational education

   c. Percent total expenditures for occupational education

   d. Percent staff in occupational education

9. Of the programs you now have, were any of them added in the past five years? (or during your tenure if less than five years) Which are they?

   FOR EACH: a. Why was the program added?

   b. Where did the idea come from?

   c. Who first proposed the course?

   d. What procedure do you follow in innovation in education?

   e. Where did support for the course come from? (Indicate persons, groups, interests, etc.)

   f. Was the course opposed by anyone? (Who - i.e., position)

   g. What reasons were given for opposition?

   h. How was opposition expressed--what did the opponents do?

i. How was the opposition overcome? Please explain.

10. Have any old programs been expanded in the past five years to include new schools in the system or new groups of students? Which were they?

FOR EACH: a. Why was the change made?

b. Where did the idea come from?

c. Who first proposed the idea?

d. Where did support for the change come from?

e. Was the change opposed by anyone?

f. What reasons were given for opposition?

g. How was the opposition expressed? What did the opponents do?

h. How was the opposition overcome?

11. Have any new courses or programs been proposed in the past five years or so which have not been adopted? What were they (was it)?

FOR EACH: a. Why was the proposal made (i.e., what benefits, etc.)?

b. Who proposed it?

c. Where did the idea come from?

d. Who supported it (why)?

e. Who opposed the addition?

f. What was the reason for the opposition?

g. How was opposition expressed? What did opponents do?

h. Were there other situations or circumstances contributing to the failure to adopt the proposal?

i. What do you feel are the most important events or factors leading to the failure to adopt the proposal?

12. If you had adequate resources, what courses would you like to add to those already taught? (Include elementary and junior high programs.)

a. Why would you choose these courses?

b. What priority would you give these courses in relation to new courses in academic or general education?

13. Of the courses you now have, are there any you feel should be dropped? Which? Why?

14. To get back to your present problem... Generally, are your students interested in the occupational education programs you offer?

    a. Do you feel that they view them as an important part of their education?

    b. Do you have trouble getting students to take these classes?

    c. Do they regard them as respectable courses that any student might take?

    d. Do they regard them as realistic preparation for a career or more as a secondary interest?

15. What is the attitude of your non-occupational education staff toward the occupational education program?

    For the most part, do they approve of it?

    Do they encourage students to take courses in occupational education?

16. Are there any people or groups in your community who have expressed an interest in your occupational programs? (either pro or con)

    If yes: a. Who are they? (Businessmen, industrial leaders, etc.?)

    b. What has their interest been?

    c. How is the interest expressed?

    d. Whom do they contact or talk to?

    e. Has this influenced your occupational education programs in any way? Please explain.

17. What have you done to arouse interest in your community regarding occupational education programs in your school?

    What have been the results?

18. Have there been any bond referenda in the community which would affect your occupational education program?

    a. What were the results?

b. What key questions were debated?

19. On the whole, how would you characterize your school board's interest in occupational education?

a. Do they have ideas of their own about occupational education?

b. As far as you know, do they listen to anyone in the community about occupational education?

c. Do they accept your advice about occupational education generally?

d. Do they seek or accept the advice of any members of your staff about occupational education?

20. Have individual members of the school board expressed a special interest in the occupational education program?

a. How has this interest been expressed?

b. What would he (they) like to see in the program?

c. To what extent has this member influenced other members of the board?

[After the first five interviews, the following item was added after Number 20:

d. Have members of the county board of commissioners expressed an interest in your occupational education program?

If yes, please explain.]

21. I would like to find out how your program might be affected by other agencies. For example, do you feel that area secondary schools, technical institutes, or community colleges have changed the need for occupational education courses in your school system?

How close is the nearest such institution?

22. What ideas on occupational education have you received from your colleagues in other school systems?

23. How have you made use of the State Division of Vocational Education in improving and expanding your occupational education program?

Please explain.

To what extent have the policies and programs of the State Division of Vocational Education facilitated or restricted the development of occupational education programs in

your school(s)?

24. To what extent have Federal policies and programs for vocational and technical education facilitated or restricted the development of occupational education programs in your school(s)?

25. What assistance have you received from other agencies or institutions of higher education in developing your program?

26. Can you think of any other factors which might have affected the nature or quality of your occupational education program?